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**by Bin Li, Logan Shannahan, Evan Ma, Kaliatt T. Ramesh,
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ARL-TR-6085

August 2012

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Bin Li, Logan Shannahan, Evan Ma, and Kaliatt T. Ramesh
Johns Hopkins University

Suveen Mathaudhu, Robert J. Dowding, and James W. McCauley
Weapons and Materials Research Directorate, ARL

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE				Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188	
Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instructions, searching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and reviewing the collection information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing the burden, to Department of Defense, Washington Headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports (0704-0188), 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 22202-4302. Respondents should be aware that notwithstanding any other provision of law, no person shall be subject to any penalty for failing to comply with a collection of information if it does not display a currently valid OMB control number. PLEASE DO NOT RETURN YOUR FORM TO THE ABOVE ADDRESS.					
1. REPORT DATE (DD-MM-YYYY) August 2012		2. REPORT TYPE Final		3. DATES COVERED (From - To) October 2005–September 2011	
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Deformation Mechanisms and High Strain Rate Properties of Magnesium (Mg) and Mg Alloys				5a. CONTRACT NUMBER W911NF-06-2-0006	
				5b. GRANT NUMBER	
				5c. PROGRAM ELEMENT NUMBER	
6. AUTHOR(S) Bin Li, * Logan Shannahan, * Evan Ma, * Kaliatt T. Ramesh, * Suveen Mathaudhu, Robert J. Dowding, and James W. McCauley				5d. PROJECT NUMBER BH64	
				5e. TASK NUMBER	
				5f. WORK UNIT NUMBER	
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) U.S. Army Research Laboratory ATTN: RDRL-WM Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD 21005-5066				8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER ARL-TR-6085	
9. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)				10. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S ACRONYM(S)	
				11. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S)	
12. DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY STATEMENT Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.					
13. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES *Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD 21218					
14. ABSTRACT This report summarizes research at the Johns Hopkins University Center for Advanced Metallic and Ceramic Systems on lightweight magnesium (Mg) and Mg alloys, under the sponsorship of the U.S. Army Research Laboratory (ARL) Materials Center of Excellence (MCOE) during 2007–2010. In collaboration with ARL, extensive studies have been conducted on the fundamental deformation mechanisms of pure Mg and the mechanical properties at high strain rate of ultrafine-grained Mg alloys. Atomistic simulations, transmission electron microscopy, and Kolsky bar testing have been performed to investigate the deformation mechanisms of Mg and Mg alloys. Newly uncovered mechanisms of pyramidal slip, $\{10\bar{1}1\} < 10\bar{1}2 >$ twinning and $\{10\bar{1}2\} < 10\bar{1}1 >$ twinning, were observed for hexagonal close-packed Mg. High strain rate properties of Mg alloys with submicron grain sizes were also studied.					
15. SUBJECT TERMS magnesium, deformation mechanisms, high strain rate, twinning, zonal dislocations					
16. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF:			17. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT UU	18. NUMBER OF PAGES 26	19a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE PERSON James W. McCauley
a. REPORT Unclassified	b. ABSTRACT Unclassified	c. THIS PAGE Unclassified			19b. TELEPHONE NUMBER (Include area code) 410-306-0711

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Acknowledgments

This work was carried out in the U.S. Army Research Laboratory Materials Center of Excellence at the Center for Advanced Metallic and Ceramic Systems, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, under cooperative agreement no. W911NF-06-2-0006.

1. Introduction

Magnesium (Mg) and Mg alloys are desirable structural materials for lightweight systems due to their very low density ($\sim 1740 \text{ kg/m}^3$, 34% less than Al). In recent years, attention has been focused on the need for significant improvements in mechanical properties to enable more widespread application of these materials. This increased interest led to the organization of an international workshop at Johns Hopkins University during 1–2 May 2007 (1) and a Sagamore conference in June 2010 (2). A comprehensive historical review of the U.S. military applications of Mg alloys has recently been published (3). However, compared with metals that have higher symmetry crystal structures, the plastic deformation mechanisms in the hexagonal-close-packed (hcp) Mg are much more complicated and, consequently, were less understood (4–8). In Mg, three possible dislocation Burgers vectors can be operative on various slip planes (7, 9): $\langle a \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \langle 11\bar{2}0 \rangle$ (on basal or prismatic planes), $\langle c \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \langle 11\bar{2}0 \rangle$ (on prismatic planes), and $\langle c+a \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \langle 11\bar{2}\bar{3} \rangle$ (on the $\{11\bar{2}2\}$ pyramidal plane). Since type $\langle a \rangle$ dislocations cannot accommodate the strain along the $\langle c \rangle$ axis, pyramidal slip is activated during plastic deformation. Due to the limited number of slip systems, twinning also plays an important role in the plastic deformation of Mg. The two dominant twinning modes in Mg are $\{10\bar{1}1\} \langle 10\bar{1}2 \rangle$ and $\{10\bar{1}2\} \langle 10\bar{1}\bar{1} \rangle$ (10–14), with the latter being the more commonly observed in deformed Mg and other hcp metals. The slip and twinning systems in Mg are summarized in figure 1.

The complicated deformation mechanisms (figure 1) have been extensively studied by simulation and experiment during the past few decades. However, the results have been controversial and inconclusive. For example, if we closely examine all the slip systems and the two twinning systems, an intriguing finding is that the pyramidal slip is not found on either of the two twin planes. Despite the fact that Mg does not twin on the $\{11\bar{2}2\}$ plane, it has always been claimed that there is a pyramidal $\langle c+a \rangle$ slip system $\{11\bar{2}2\} \langle 11\bar{2}\bar{3} \rangle$ on this plane (4–8).

The twinning mechanisms in the lower symmetry hcp structure have remained unsolved because twinning in Mg involves complicated processes, including a homogeneous shear and local atomic shuffling. The Burgers vectors of the twinning dislocations are only a small fraction of the twinning direction vector η_1 , distinctive from the twinning process in face-centered-cubic structures where simple shear alone, via a Shockley partial dislocation, can accomplish the twinning (15–20). Exactly what happens at the twin/matrix interfaces has remained obscure, despite the efforts over the past several decades.

To enable potential applications in extreme dynamic environments, mechanical properties at high strain rates under dynamic testing must also be studied. The goals of this research project have been to: (1) resolve the mechanisms of dislocation slip and twinning in Mg, particularly the

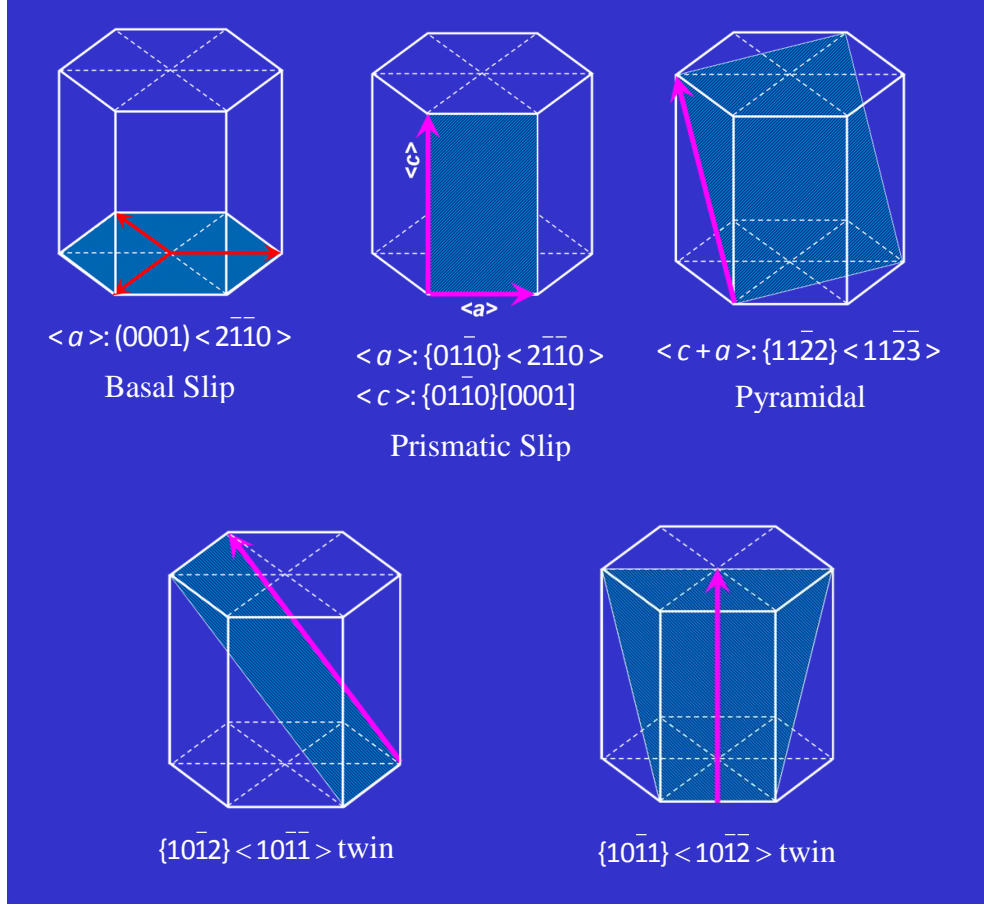


Figure 1. Schematic of the slip and twinning systems in hexagonal close-packed (hcp) Mg. Note that the pyramidal slip is on neither of the two twinning planes.

pyramidal slip and the interfacial dynamics at the twin boundaries (TBs) (the results obtained can be extended to other hcp metals, such as Ti, Zr, Co, etc.), (2) improve the mechanical properties through grain refining techniques such as severe plastic deformation (SPD) processing, and (3) study high strain rate properties of the ultrafine-grained (UFG) Mg and Mg alloys.

2. Methodology

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations and the embedded atom method (EAM) interatomic potential for Mg developed by Liu et al. (21) were utilized to study dislocation slip and twinning in Mg. The EAM potential was fit not only to experimental data but also force data obtained from *ab initio* calculations using local orbital pseudopotentials based on the local density approximation in the density functional theory. We validated the EAM potentials by calculating the stacking fault energy and the split distance between the Shockley partial dislocations (22–24), and the results obtained were satisfactory.

We used transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to observe pyramidal dislocations, stacking faults, and twinning dislocations at the TBs. TEM specimens were polished using a Tenupol-3 electropolisher with a perchloric (<2%) ethanol solution. The specimens were then cleaned by ion milling for ~0.5 h with liquid nitrogen cooling and using very gentle milling conditions (low incidental angle and low voltage). TEM microstructural analyses were carried out on a Philips 420 microscope with a double-tilt specimen stage. The accelerating voltage was 120 kV. We also performed high-resolution electron microscopy on an FEI CM 300 microscope.

UFG samples were prepared by equal-channel, angular-extrusion (ECAE) processing. In this method, a sample is pressed through a die having intersecting channels of equal size and shape, often at right angles. Large shear strain is imparted to the sample, while the cross section of the sample is maintained during processing. Fine grains result due to dynamic recovery and recrystallization. This processing method has been successful in processing a wide range of metallic materials with refined grain structures.

Compression Kolsky bar (also known as the split-Hopkinson pressure bar) experiments were conducted to obtain the mechanical response at high strain rates ($>10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$). The test specimens had a square cross section of $4 \times 4 \text{ mm}$, with a height-to-width ratio ~0.6. The interfaces between the specimens and the bars were lubricated with grease. A digital high-speed camera (DRS Hadland Ultra 8), with the ability to record eight frames at a rate of 10^8 frames per second, was synchronized with the Kolsky bar system to record the deformation and failure of the specimens in dynamic loading. The cuboidal specimens were polished on one rectangular surface to a mirror-like finish. This surface was oriented toward the high-speed camera.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1 Pyramidal Slip on $\{10\bar{1}1\}$ Twinning Plane

Figure 2 shows the basal planes colored alternately red and green. Only a portion of the crystal is shown, with part of a created cavity at the lower right corner serving as a nucleation site for dislocations. The two-dimensional atomic figure is a projection of the three-dimensional structure such that each column of atoms corresponds to a basal plane.

Under uniaxial tension along the $\langle c \rangle$ axis, dislocation slip occurs on a pyramidal plane. A dislocation (inside the circle) can be seen to nucleate from the cavity and glides toward the free surface. The slip plane, which is inclined with respect to the basal planes, is identified as $(01\bar{1}1)$ (the trace of the slip plane is shown as a broken blue line). The Burgers vector of the dislocation has a magnitude of $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} [01\bar{1}2]$. As shown in figure 2, a change in the stacking sequence in the region behind the dislocation core can clearly be seen. Each basal plane in the nonsheared

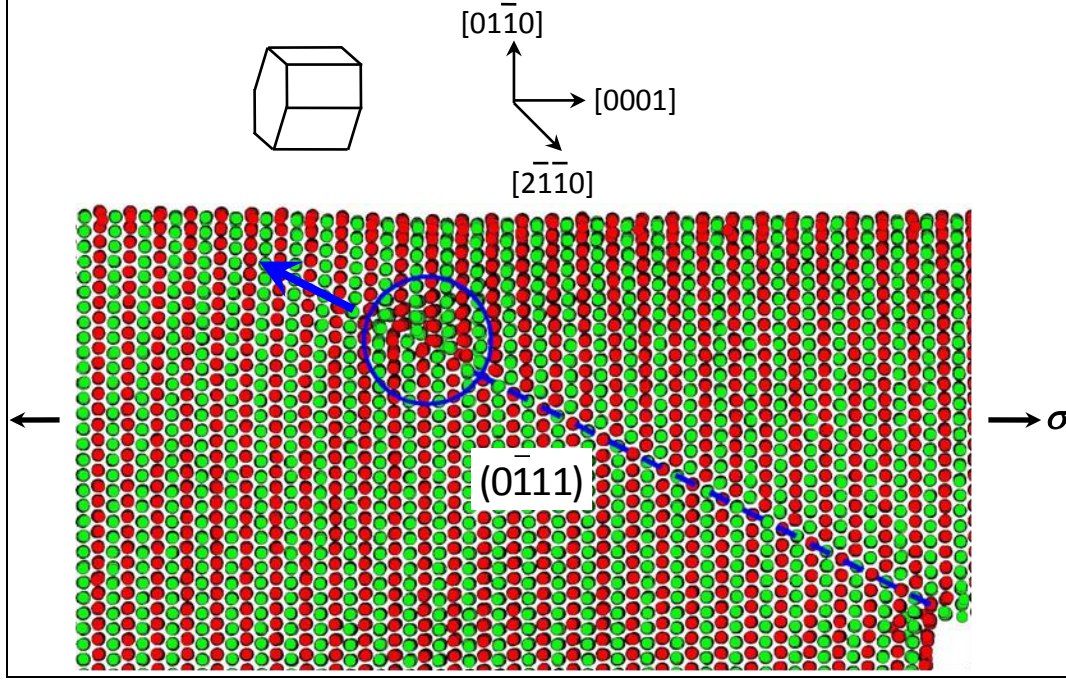


Figure 2. A dislocation (circled region) is nucleated at the lower right corner and propagates towards the free surface (indicated by the arrow). The trace of the slip plane is marked with a broken blue line. The slip plane is identified as (0111) . The dislocation creates a stacking fault behind. Note the change in color for each of the basal planes after the dislocation propagates through.

region remains single colored, while those in the sheared region become mixed, indicating a stacking fault is created by the pyramidal dislocation (25). Figure 3 shows well-defined dark/bright fringes typical of stacking faults observed in TEM. We believe that this is the first TEM observation of wide stacking faults in Mg and other hcp metals.

The simulation results and the TEM observations demonstrate the following: (1) the slip plane of pyramidal dislocations is not the previously claimed $\{11\bar{2}2\}$ but $\{10\bar{1}1\}$, one of the twinning planes; and (2) unit pyramidal dislocations $\{11\bar{2}2\} <11\bar{2}3>$ do not exist in Mg and other hcp metals, contrary to previous reports.

3.2 Zonal Dislocations Promoting $\{10\bar{1}1\} <10\bar{1}2>$ Twinning

The critical issue associated with deformation twinning in hcp metals is which twinning dislocations can promote twin growth under an external load. It was realized that the twinning dislocations have to be “zonal dislocations” comprising multiple twinning planes (26). In addition, atomic shuffling is required to establish the correct twin orientation relationship. The role of shuffling in twinning has been overlooked in previous research.

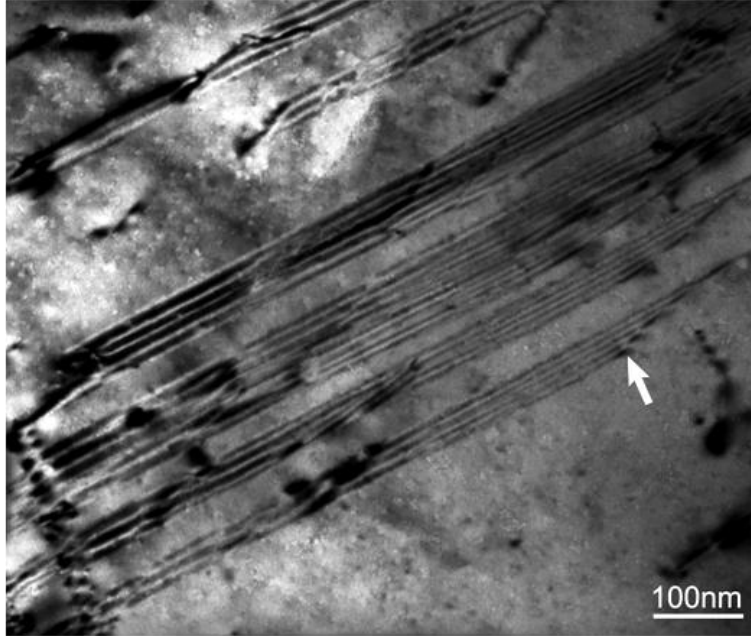


Figure 3. Well-defined fringes from stacking faults in a commercially pure Mg sample uniaxially compressed to 10%. The associated dislocations (indicated by the arrow) can be clearly seen, which are presumably emitted from a low-angle grain boundary (lower left).

In figure 4, a single crystal was loaded in tension perpendicular to the $\langle c \rangle$ axis, and $\{10\bar{1}1\} \langle 10\bar{1}2 \rangle$ twinning is observed. The TBs are marked with white bold lines. Multiple steps at the TBs are the traces of the twinning dislocations (indicated by the arrows). The twinning plane can be identified as $\{10\bar{1}1\}$. This twinning mode causes contraction along the $\langle c \rangle$ axis.

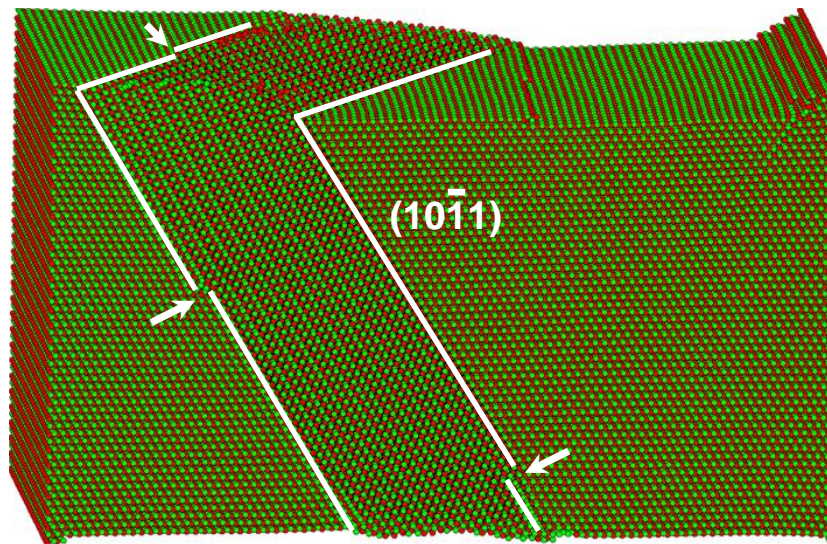


Figure 4. Three-dimensional view of the twin and the matrix. The two interfaces are marked with bold white lines. The twinning plane can be identified as $\{10\bar{1}1\}$. Steps on the twin boundaries can be seen (indicated by arrows).

Figure 5 shows a single crystal that has undergone twinning during deformation. Atoms that have a coordination number other than 12 are plotted as red circles, and other atoms with a coordination number equal to 12 are shown as little blue dots. Atoms residing in the dislocation core and at the twin/matrix interfaces are highlighted and tracked during simulation. It can be clearly seen that twinning dislocations nucleate at the intersection of the twinning plane and the top surface and glide downwards, leading to twin growth (thickening) (27).

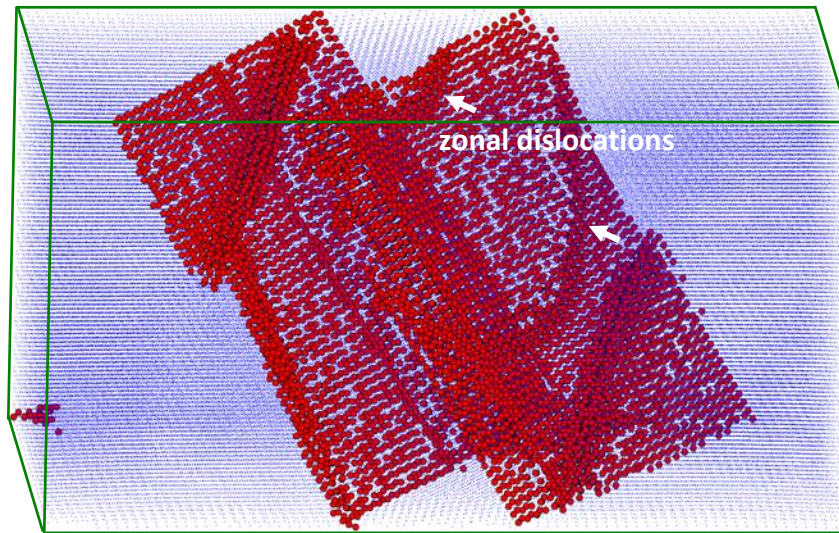


Figure 5. Zonal twinning dislocations were observed at the TBs (indicated by the arrows). The plot was made such that the atoms at the twin boundaries are highlighted in red, while other atoms were plotted as little blue dots. The core of the zonal dislocations spreads over two twinning planes.

Our TEM analysis confirms that the $\{10\bar{1}1\} <10\bar{1}2>$ twinning is indeed promoted by the twinning dislocations at the TBs (28). In figure 6, the dark/bright fringes parallel to the TBs are the contrast from the twin/matrix interfaces. It can be seen that twinning dislocations (indicated by the thin arrows) are confined inside the TBs, which are also the interfacial dislocations. It can also be seen that matrix dislocations (indicated by the block arrows) have similar diffraction contrast as the twinning dislocations, indicating that these dislocations have the same Burgers vector component along the twinning direction.

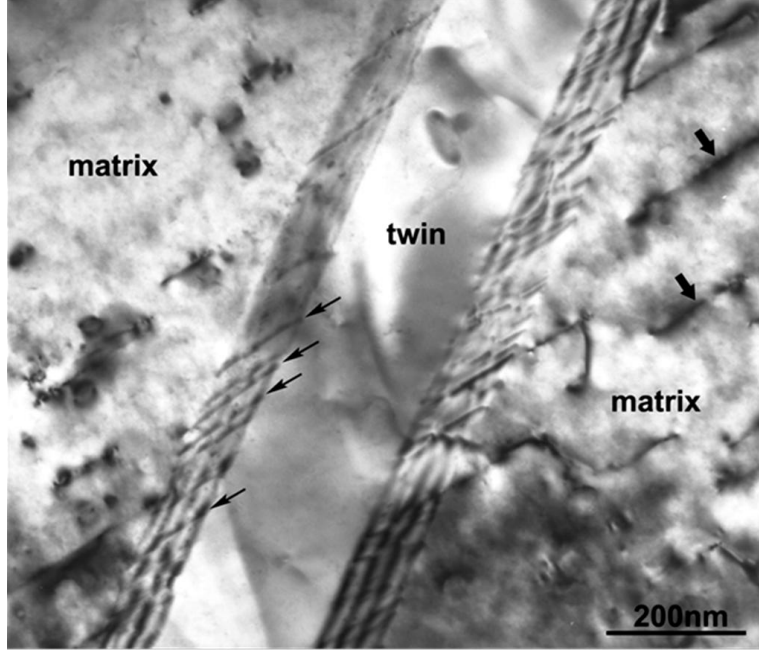


Figure 6. TEM observation of twinning dislocations (indicated by the thin arrows) confined in the twin boundary, and matrix pyramidal dislocations (indicated by the block arrows). Note that the twinning dislocations and the pyramidal dislocations have similar diffraction contrast, indicating that pyramidal slip must be on the twinning plane.

3.3 Atomic Shuffling Dominated $\{10\bar{1}2\} < 10\bar{1}1 >$ Twinning

In the $\{10\bar{1}1\} < 10\bar{1}2 >$ twinning mode, a zonal twinning dislocation can be well defined, and atoms at the TBs slightly shuffle off-plane to create a twin. However, the scenario of the most commonly observed $\{10\bar{1}2\} < 10\bar{1}1 >$ twinning mode in Mg and other hcp metals is very different. The calculated Burgers vector of the “twinning dislocation” is only 0.024 nm, about 1/31 of the twinning direction vector η_1 . The dislocations that promote twin growth have been controversial for decades.

A new crystallographic model (29) has been proposed to describe the $\{10\bar{1}2\} < 10\bar{1}1 >$ twinning. This model only involves local atomic shuffling to accomplish the twinning process with little twinning shear. Figure 7 schematically shows our twinning model. The parent hcp lattice cell is illustrated with atoms in a red/blue/red color scheme to show the *ABABAB* stacking sequence, and the basal planes are marked as *A* (red) and *B* (pink), perpendicular to the paper plane and stacking from the bottom up. If those atoms with distances close to a_0 (the lattice parameter) are connected, it can immediately be seen that a new “hcp” lattice can be constructed with a misorientation $\sim 90^\circ$ with respect to the original basal plane. Note that this misorientation satisfies the $\{10\bar{1}2\}$ twin relationship, and it easily seen that the $\{10\bar{1}2\}$ plane is common to both lattices. The new “basal” planes are marked by *A'* (dark green) and *B'* (light green), parallel to

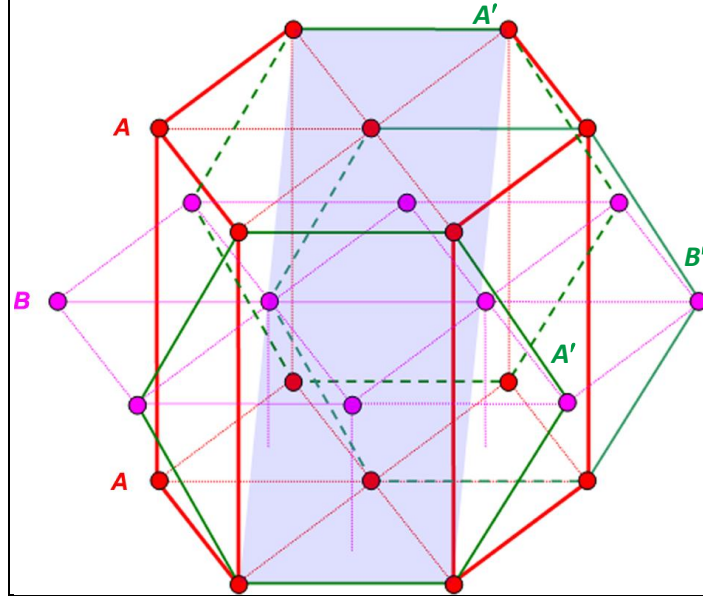


Figure 7. Schematic of constructing a new hcp lattice (dark blue; the basal planes are parallel to the paper plane) from an existing hcp lattice (red; the basal planes are perpendicular to the paper plane). The stacking of the parent basal planes is marked as $ABABAB\dots$ (B layer in pink), whereas the stacking of the new basal planes is marked as $A'B'A'B'A'B'$. The two lattices share a common $\{10\bar{1}2\}$ plane and, hence, they satisfy the twin relationship. Local shuffling is required to correct the distortion in the new hcp lattice so the correct stacking sequence and c/a ratio can be established.

the paper plane and marked as $A'B'A'B'A'B'$. However, the new lattice is distorted and does not have the correct hcp stacking sequence yet. This is obvious since the prism planes of an hcp lattice are double-layered, but the constructed prism plane is flat. Conversely, the constructed basal planes are double-layered instead of flat, as is expected. To correct these distortions, the

pink atoms of the new basal (the A' plane) have to shuffle outwards by $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}a_0$ (~ 0.092 nm for Mg and ~ 0.085 nm for Ti) to make the new basal flat, while the atoms of the B' plane have to shuffle downwards by $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{6}a_0$ to make the new prism double-layered. These shuffles, plus other minor adjustments to reach the correct c/a ratio, with magnitudes much shorter than any existing dislocation Burgers vectors, exactly convert the parent basal planes to the twin prism planes and the parent prism planes to the twin basal planes. As can be seen, this reconstruction process involves no definable dislocation but only local shuffling.

Our model explains the reasons why: (1) $\{10\bar{1}2\} < 10\bar{1}1 >$ twinning is reversible, and (2) hcp metals have a natural tendency to reorient the basal plane parallel to the loading axis (i.e., texturing) during plastic deformation.

3.4 High Strain Rate Properties of UFG Mg Alloys

The microstructure of the UFG sample (AZ31B) processed by seven ECAE passes is shown in figure 8. The grain structure is significantly refined, with an average grain size of about 250 nm. To the best of our knowledge, this is the finest Mg alloy grain size obtained by ECAE processing; the grain boundaries are observed to be high-angle grain boundaries.

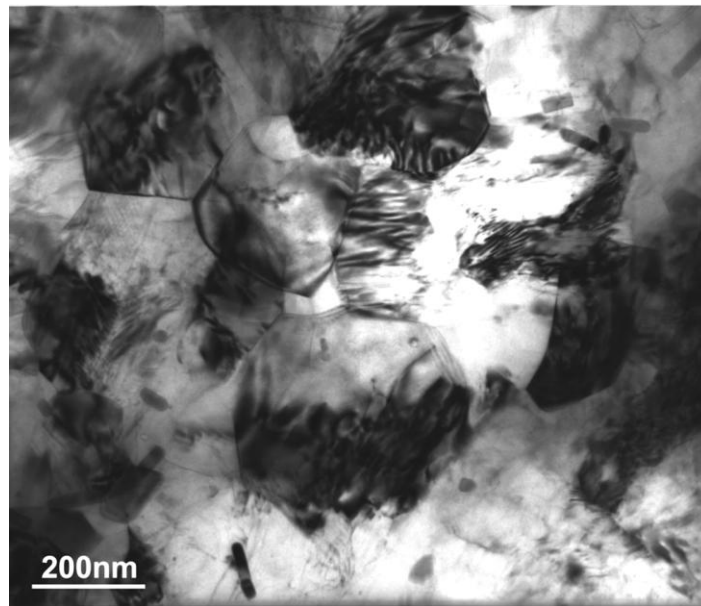


Figure 8. Ultrafine-grained (UFG) AZ31B samples were obtained by ECAE processing. The TEM micrograph shows the average grain size is about 250 nm.

In figure 9, the stress-strain curves at high strain rates ($\sim 4500 \text{ s}^{-1}$) of the samples with various ECAE processing is presented. As the number of passes increases, the grain size decreases, with an expected increase in the elastic strength. Significant differences in the flow stresses can be seen between the coarse-grained samples and the UFG samples. For the coarse-grained samples, a large increase in work hardening can be seen, whereas the UFG samples harden only moderately. The difference in the plastic flow indicates a transition in the deformation mechanisms from twinning dominated flow in the coarse-grained samples to dislocation dominated flow in the UFG samples (30).

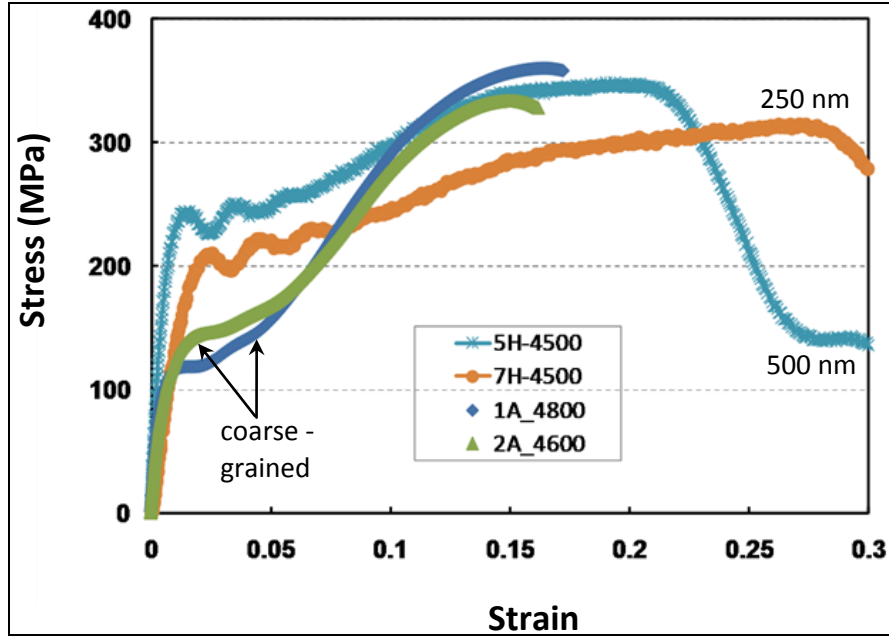


Figure 9. Mechanical properties of an AZ31B Mg alloy at high strain rates ($\sim 4500 \text{ s}^{-1}$) processed by different number of ECAE passes (1A – 1 pass; 2A – 2 passes 5H – 5 passes; 7H – 7 passes). The grain size decreases as the number of passes increases. In general, the elastic strength increases as the grain size decreases. A drastic increase in work hardening can be seen in coarse-grained samples, a sharp contrast to only moderate hardening in UFG samples; this indicates a transition in deformation mechanism.

In figure 10, high strain rate mechanical test data for a number of Mg alloys in the literature (30–35) are presented in the form of a semi-log plot. All of the data are taken from the extrusion direction. It is observed that the compressive strength increases as the strain rate increases, indicating a rate dependence of the mechanical properties of Mg alloys. Note that figure 7 only provides a general sense of the mechanical properties of Mg alloys at high strain rates. Direct comparison of the properties must be done with caution since the mechanical properties strongly depend upon the processing history, sample orientation, and microstructure.

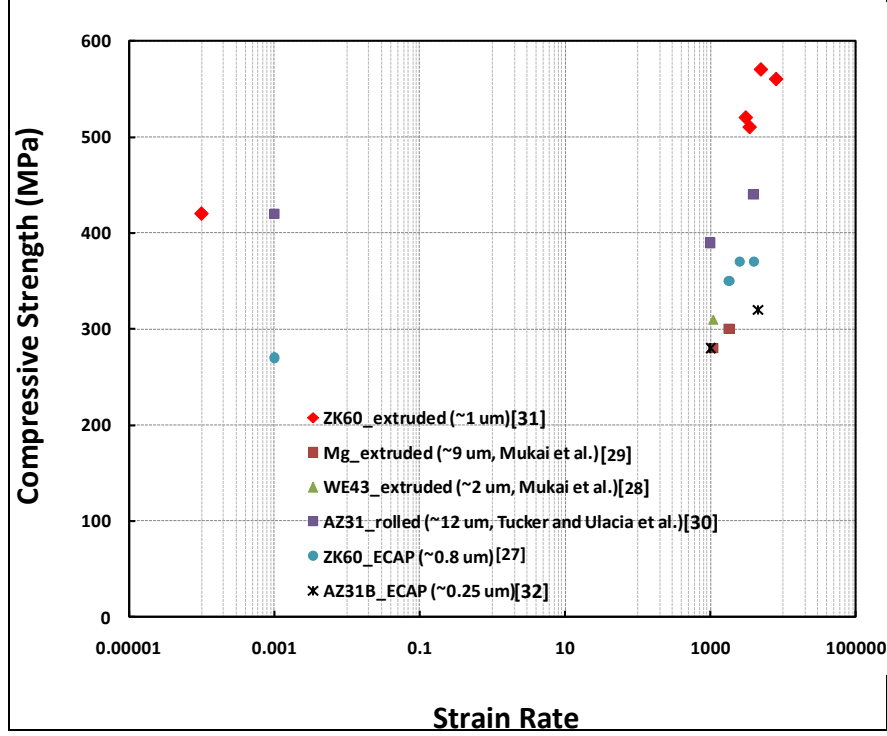


Figure 10. A summary of compressive strengths of Mg alloys tested at high strain rates ($>1000 \text{ s}^{-1}$); quasi-static data are also included. All data points are from the extrusion direction. Note: this plot only provides a general sense of the mechanical properties at dynamic range of Mg alloys. Direct comparison in mechanical properties of Mg alloys must be done with caution because the experimental results strongly depend upon processing history, sample orientation, and microstructure.

4. Conclusions

1. Atomistic simulations and the TEM analysis demonstrates that pyramidal slip in Mg and other hcp metals is not on the often-claimed $\{11\bar{2}2\}$ plane, and the existence of $\{11\bar{2}2\} \langle 11\bar{2}3 \rangle$ pyramidal dislocations is questionable. Our results show that pyramidal slip occurs on the $\{10\bar{1}1\}$ plane, which is also a twinning plane, in Mg, with a Burgers vector $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \langle 10\bar{1}2 \rangle$ along the twinning direction. This incomplete dislocation creates a wide stacking fault on the $\{10\bar{1}1\}$ plane, as confirmed by TEM analysis.

2. MD simulations show that the $\{10\bar{1}1\} \langle 10\bar{1}2 \rangle$ twinning is promoted by a zonal dislocation, with the dislocation core spreading over two twinning planes. The overall Burgers vector adds up to $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \langle 10\bar{1}2 \rangle$, which equals a pyramidal dislocation in the matrix.
3. A new crystallographic model has been proposed to describe the most commonly observed $\{10\bar{1}2\} \langle 10\bar{1}1 \rangle$ twinning in Mg and other hcp metals. In this model, a new “hcp” lattice can be reconstructed from the existing matrix lattice, with the $\langle c \rangle$ axes of the two lattices nearly perpendicular to each other, satisfying the twin orientation relationship. Minor atomic shuffling is required to accomplish the correct hcp stacking in the new lattice. The magnitude of the shuffling is much shorter than any Burgers vector of matrix dislocations but much larger than the calculated twinning Burgers vector, indicating that the $\{10\bar{1}2\} \langle 10\bar{1}1 \rangle$ twinning mode is shuffling dominated.

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